
EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION *of the*
**Association of History
Teachers of the Middle
States and Maryland**

HELD IN NEW YORK, MARCH ELEVENTH
AND TWELFTH, NINETEEN HUNDRED TEN



PRICE TWENTY-FIVE CENTS

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OFFICERS AND COUNCIL, 1910-1911

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SYNOPSIS OF PROCEEDINGS

COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK,
FRIDAY AFTERNOON

In the absence of President Finley, Professor Henry Johnson, of the College of the City of New York, welcomed the Association. The response was made by President Herman Ames, Dean of the Graduate School, University of Pennsylvania.

Paper: "On a certain Indefiniteness in the Teaching of History."

Lucy M. Salmon, Vassar College.

Topic: "How to Use a Syllabus."

1. In the Elementary School.

Louise J. Hedge, Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, New York.

2. In the Secondary School.

Anna Boynton Thompson, Thayer Academy, South Braintree, Mass.

Discussion: Daniel C. Knowlton, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J.

3. In the College.

Herbert Darling Foster, Dartmouth College.

Discussion: Edgar Dawson, The Normal College, New York City.

FRIDAY EVENING

The evening address, by Mr. George A. Plimpton, was given at Mr. Plimpton's residence. This gave the members of the Asso-

Libr
ciation an opportunity to examine Mr. Plimpton's remarkable collection of old editions of school and college text-books.

SATURDAY MORNING

On Saturday morning the Association had the pleasure of listening to a brief address by President Finley, of the College of the City of New York. This was followed by music on the organ in the Great Hall, by Professor Baldwin, of the College.

1,25
Address: "The Teaching of American History in the Grades, with Particular Reference to the Period Before 1776." Edward Mandel, Principal of Public School No. 188, New York.

Topic: "The Use of Maps, Pictures and Models in the Teaching of History."

1. In the Secondary School.

Louise H. Haesler, High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

2. In the College.

Annie Heloise Abel, Goucher College, Baltimore.

Discussion: M. Frances Freeland, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Business Meeting: Reports and elections of officers.

Direct
Appropriate resolutions were adopted extending the thanks of the Association to Mr. George A. Plimpton for the privilege of seeing his collection of text-books in his home, to the President and Trustees of the College of the City of New York for their hospitality, to the visiting speakers, to Professor Baldwin of the Department of Music of the College of the City of New York, to the American Book Company for the publication of the *Proceedings* of the Association, and to the local committee.

The names of the officers and council elected are on Page 3.

ON A CERTAIN INDEFINITENESS IN HISTORY

LUCY M. SALMON

VASSAR COLLEGE

From the days when we all read our Xenophons and counted the parasangs that measured the distance between Cunaxa and the Euxine, at least one vivid picture remains—it is the picture of the approach of the hostile army. During the morning the alarm had been sounded that the enemy was at hand, but at mid-day it was not yet in sight. As afternoon came on, however, a cloud of dust was seen in the distance and gradually it spread over the whole plain like a heavy black pall. Then from out of the cloud of dust there was the flashing of armor, and then the ranks of the enemy emerged. Soon there could be plainly distinguished the troopers with their cuirasses, the infantry with their heavy shields, the different nations all marching in solid squares, and last of all the famous scythe-chariots placed in the very fore-front of the advancing foe. The enemy had arrived, and the leader of the Greeks rode past, at some distance from the lines, and surveyed the whole field of friends and foes, and then begged a friend to announce to his followers that all the omens were in their favor.

Xenophon is classed as an historian rather than as a psychologist, yet perhaps no technical psychologist of to-day has given us a more perfect description of the stages involved in passing from the vagueness of the distant unknown to the certainty of the present, and the prophetic encouragement of the future. From the description given, a few features of the concrete picture at first stand out vividly and are then resolved into terms of the universal—vagueness precedes clearness of vision, indefiniteness precedes definiteness, the objective point is the last element to be recognized, it is the leader who surveys the field and sends back the cheering assurance that “all’s well.”

If we in turn again resolve these terms of the universal into the concrete problems of history, a few questions shape themselves into definite forms. Do we sometimes err in expecting clearness of vision on the part of those who can as yet discern only the cloud on the horizon; in looking for definiteness of impression from those who see the flashing of the armor, but cannot distinguish one nation from another; in expecting a survey of the entire field from those marching on foot; in forgetting on our part to send back a reassuring message from the front? Do we perchance sometimes err in projecting back into the field of the mental activities of high school pupils an objective point that belongs to our more mature activities? Are we prone to forget the ragged edges that accompany all work in the making and therefore to expect from students a finished product when all that we can reasonably expect is the promise of such?

These questions must come with a growing insistence to be considered, since they inevitably arise with the ever increasing pressure to make the teaching of history more definite. "Unless history be taught exactly," says Professor MacDonald, "we might as well not attempt to teach it at all."

The consideration of the problem involves examination of five assumptions on which the demand for greater definiteness in our teaching is based. These are: That history itself is definite, that we must be able to teach it exactly, that pupils must be able to assimilate history when it is taught exactly, that the objective point of our teaching must be definiteness, that if this definiteness cannot be secured, the attempt to teach history might better be abandoned.

That history itself presents a definite field few of us would confidently assert. That we are able to teach history exactly must be questioned not only from the nature of history itself, but also from the indefiniteness of our own knowledge of the past. This has been admirably described by Professor Robinson when he says, "Our historical knowledge must forever rest upon scattered and highly precarious data, the truth of which we have no means of testing." Shall we not, therefore, first of all plead with the investigator to increase the number of his tribe and to multiply the activities of all, that history itself may become more definite? Can we ourselves demand of others a definiteness we ourselves confessedly do not, and cannot, have?

But even could we assume that the field of history has been, or can be, definitely laid out, and that we ourselves could teach it with definiteness, the question must come whether the pupils with whom we deal are able on their part to be taught history definitely. Is it not true that the boy must learn by long, slow process how to use tools of precision in mechanical processes—even longer and slower must be the stages by which he learns the use of mental tools of precision and arrives through their use at that extreme definiteness of impression and of statement that belongs to maturity.

The assumption that the objective point in our teaching must be definiteness must give rise to the deep-seated doubt as to whether, after all, the securing of definiteness is our real aim. It is possible that in the search for definiteness we are but exemplifying the scriptural phrase that he that seeketh his life shall lose it. The conductor on a railway train has an excellent "carrying memory"—not a face escapes him so long as it is important for him to remember them all exactly. But each new trip effaces the memory of the passengers previously carried—an entirely new collection of faces is presented, and they in turn are supplanted by still others. The memory of the conductor is exact and infallible, and we may, if we wish, teach our pupils to acquire the same kind of a carrying knowledge of history. Yet while we have taught them exact knowledge and the exact facts of history, is it possible that after all we may not have taught them history?

Is it possible that we also forget the many-sided nature of history and that when we speak of the object of the study of history we are ourselves speaking in terms of the greatest indefiniteness? At least five different classes of persons are concerned in the study of history; first, there is the investigator who may, or who may not be able to present the results of his investigations in the form of literary history; second, the writer of history who may or who may not be an original investigator; third, the teacher of history who is not necessarily either an investigator or a writer of history, but whose attitude toward the subject is active and positive, to a certain extent even creative; fourth, the student of history who is more or less passive and receptive, absorbing the results of the creative work of others; fifth, the reader of history—a large class whose claims to

recognition are sometimes overlooked. The object of each of these classes is entirely different. The investigator aims to make a new contribution to the sum total of historical knowledge. The writer of history seeks to produce a work of literary art. The teacher varies his object with the age and mental maturity of those taught—the child lives in a world of the imagination and his mental characteristics guide the teacher both in the choice of material and in the method of dealing with it; the boy is controlled by enthusiasms, he dreams dreams and sees visions, he lives in a world of ever-widening horizons and ever-ascending ideals, and the object of the teacher of history is controlled by the injunction of Cousin—to preserve religiously the sacred fire of enthusiasm; the boy develops into the youth and adds to imagination and enthusiasm the desire to see relationships, to find unity and harmony and guiding principle—the object of the teacher must be to help him find not only unity in historical development, but unity in all forms of knowledge; the young man retains the characteristics of his earlier development, but judgment now becomes the prevailing one—he seeks for primal causes, he makes comparisons, and the critical faculty holds in check his early imagination and enthusiasm, and the teacher in turn again finds a new object in seeking to train the judgment, and to show how the records of the past are to be selected and interpreted. With the ever varying stages of mental maturity the object of the teacher shifts from one stage to another, ever adapting itself to the new development, ever following, yet ever leading. And if the object of the teacher of history must thus constantly and consciously adapt itself to new conditions, it must follow that the object of a student of history must also, but for the most part unconsciously, change with changing mental development.

We cannot believe, therefore, that we are called on to abandon the teaching of history, although we must recognize the difficulty of teaching it with definiteness, and the impossibility of making definiteness our chief aim in teaching it, or even in any sense of the phrase our objective point. The pupil may, indeed, retain in memory a comparatively small number of very definite exact facts, yet the situation is assuredly not hopeless if he has acquired an interest in accumulating additional facts, if he has gained the knowledge of

how to acquire them, and if he has developed the historical insight to interpret them after they have been acquired. May not, therefore, definiteness of impression be as legitimate an object to aim for as is definiteness in the statement of facts?

It is possible that in this search for definiteness, we are sometimes seeking for it, not because, like virtue, it is its own reward, but for ulterior reasons. Unhappily, as some of us believe, the teaching of history in our schools is dominated by external conditions over which the teacher of history has no control. The College Entrance Examination Board lays its hand on nearly every pupil entering college through examination, the Regents' Examinations are in effect compulsory in New York State, the Carnegie Foundation specifies a minimum number of "units" as a prerequisite for entrance to any college that is to share in the pension fund of the Foundation, and if the college needs an extra unit to meet this requirement, history is the most convenient subject at hand to furnish it. These three boards are all external authorities whose action influences directly the action of the school authorities and therefore indirectly the work of an almost incalculable number of pupils in the secondary schools.

That these external authorities have done much to bring order out of educational chaos is universally recognized, and all praise is due them. Yet the question must come whether it is not possible to sacrifice unity of spirit to uniformity of action, whether standardizing our work may not mean devitalizing it after a certain point has been reached. Any scheme of "units," "points," or "credits" is but an arbitrary effort to measure by mechanical devices the invisible, intangible processes of growth. We do not sell sugar by the yard, watches by the pound, or poetry by the peck, and to describe mental attainment in terms of "units," "points," or "credits" must tend to make all so-called educational processes mechanical in their results. Instead, therefore, of seeking to hasten the attainment of this inevitable end, shall we not reverse our engines and seek to change the system that leads to it? Ought not our purpose to be the encouragement of the study of history rather than the encouragement of ways and means of passing the examinations set by the Regents or the College Entrance Examination Board? We are asked to-day to

make our work more definite—we are not urged to open a closed door and give our pupils an outlook over the past, to show them the process of historical growth and development, to make them more interested in watching and in tracing this development, to see the records of the past in all that lies about them—but we are urged to make our teaching of history “definite and exact.” The question may at least be raised whether this particular objective point would be urged upon us were we not confronted with these external standardizing authorities. The photographer asks the sitter to gaze fixedly at a certain point. The sitter himself sees nothing, he simply gazes, but the success of the photographer depends on the success of the sitter in carrying out these instructions. The high school pupil may gaze at the fixed point of college entrance examination with such success that he may present “the practically perfect paper” demanded by the college, yet he may have seen no history in the process of gazing.

It is possible that we are all unconsciously dealing in educational misfits—that when we think we are seeking to make history more definite, we are in reality wishing to have the entrance examination questions in history made more definite, and that when these questions call for a definite knowledge of facts, we again seek to secure a corresponding definiteness in the instruction in history, not so much for the sake of greater definiteness of impression or a more definite grasp of the subject on the part of the pupils, as for the sake of assuring a definiteness of rating on the part of those who read the entrance papers.

Is it not also possible that we all need more clearness of thinking in regard to the nature of history itself, that we are prone to confuse the record—the raw material, with history—the finished product; that we confuse the subject-matter of history with the means of teaching it; that we confuse our own subjective aims as teachers with the objective point of view we should keep in mind for our students and pupils; that we identify teaching a subject with teaching pupils; that we project our own mental maturity back into the mental immaturity of our classes; and that it is this confusion on our own part that in large measure affects and limits the success with which history is taught.

But it must be self-evident that in spite of our own uncertainty and our own indefiniteness great progress has been made all along the line in the teaching of history, a progress that is commensurate with that made in the investigation of history and in the literary skill with which the results of these investigations are set forth. A single illustration of this progress may be noted. A group of instructors in history in Vassar College was lately asked what specially excellent features had been recently noted in the history work done by students coming from the secondary schools, and these replies were made: "They have a general knowledge of facts and of their relation to each other and they realize that facts have a relative importance; they have some idea of the relation of history to other subjects and recognize that a knowledge of history helps in the understanding of literature as well as in the understanding of present-time conditions; they have some idea of how to make out an outline and of how to get the kernel out of a paragraph or chapter, although this knowledge has been obtained from a variety of sources, and not exclusively from their study of history; they are able to use two or more books on the same subject and compare the material thus obtained; they have some idea of how to draw a map—showing not only a knowledge of geography, but also much skill in graphically representing the geographical facts learned; they often show that some special interest has been fostered, as an interest in art or in literature, or in social customs, or in economic conditions; they have an appreciation of scholarship and of ability to teach on the part of their college instructors and this has apparently come from having a high standard of comparison given them before they enter college." This surely is a veritable catalogue of the ships in the length of its enumeration of the admirable results secured by the teachers of history in the secondary schools.

This plea for the recognition of a certain indefiniteness in the nature of history itself and consequently in its teaching, it is hoped may not be interpreted as a plea for careless, slovenly work. It is hoped that on the contrary it may be regarded as a plea for genuine rather than factitious definiteness, a plea for adapting our means to the end in view, and a plea for teaching history rather than preparing for examinations.

THE USE OF A SYLLABUS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

LOUISE J. HEDGE

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS, BROOKLYN

The syllabus in history may be made to yield the elementary teacher very great assistance in the teaching of her grade work. The problem this afternoon, as I understand it, is how this may be accomplished. The question may be further resolved into how far the syllabus will aid the teacher in the organization of her subject-matter, and how far it can be used by her to aid the pupils in their organization of that subject-matter. In considering the first point, I should emphasize at once the study of the whole syllabus in order to help the teacher to see the relation existing between the work of her grade and that of the grades above and below. This need, I think, is not always recognized, at least not by inexperienced teachers. Their natural method of attacking their work is much like that of a novice in the use of reference books when he first attacks a special topic. He plunges into the pages devoted to the particular subject without first stopping to note the field covered by the book, the general organization of the subject, or any other point likely to throw light upon the author's treatment of the topic under consideration. The fault in the two cases is similar, and is, of course, typical of the stage of development of these young people. In studying a new subject, they fail to see the need of background. In my teaching of method in history at the Brooklyn Training School, I have found this to be true and that in other ways also the students show need of establishing a habit of seeking more far-reaching relations among facts than as high school students they have been able to do. This seems to me a very important matter. One of the ways by which I have tried to develop this habit

has been by leading the students to make acquaintance with books before they use them in studying some special topic and another way has been to have them study the syllabus as a whole before having them consider the method for any one grade.

Let us consider with some detail the effect of a teacher's study of the whole syllabus, as an aid to good work in her own grade. In the first place, if the teacher notes specifically what has been taught in the lower grades, it is possible to avoid offering, as quite new, some story she thinks likely to prove particularly attractive, but which fails to fascinate because the children recognize it, and are filled with scorn because she is so ignorant of their accomplishments as not to know that they could tell that story themselves. Quite possibly, if she had questioned them concerning the story, instead of telling it herself, they could really have told her very little of it, yet I do believe that in such a case that is the right method for her to follow. It is likely too to stimulate remembrance, if the policy is persistently continued.

Suppose the teacher does find the children unable to tell, with any degree of fullness, a story learned in a lower grade, shall she blame the teacher of that grade? I am afraid that is what we often do—in fact I believe we are accused of having a habit, from one end of the educational system to the other, of blaming the one in the grade below. Frequently the teacher is not to blame, but the cause of the difficulty is to be sought in the particular nature of the pupil's own mental processes at that stage of development. Particularly in the subject of history it seems to be normal, in the elementary school, for the full details of a topic to be retained only for a few weeks or months, and after that, even if the teaching has been good, for only the main points to remain in the mind to suggest a general picture of the time under discussion. The teaching has not been good, however, if the child recalls his bits of stories only as isolated facts, if he has failed to get a feeling that all his history stories belong together and are parts of one series of pictures.

By looking forward over the work of the advanced grades, it is possible to avoid treating phases of a subject that must be presented again in a higher grade from the standpoint of that higher

grade. This often means self-denial for a teacher, if the topic is a favorite one. She wants to enrich it and she carelessly includes the points assigned to the higher grade, when she would doubtless help her pupils more by real enrichment, by adding graphic details for the points assigned to her own grade, thus enabling the pupils to picture more vividly scenes likely to make them appreciate the life of the times.

If one were using the syllabus of the Committee of Eight, nothing but such care could save the utter spoiling of the treatment of the topics concerning George Washington in the first five grades of the school course. For the first three years, ideas about him are to be given at the celebration of his birthday: in the first year, stories of his early boyhood with the ethical element of his mother's love for him and his for her; in the second, his later boyhood and school life with his friendship for Richard Henry Lee; for the third, no special topics are suggested. In the fourth year, his life through his trip with Braddock is covered, but now it is set in its chronological relation to the colonial history and is offered in part as a type of that life. In the fifth year, he is presented as the great general and as the first president of the republic, the only topic in that connection being his inauguration. Carefully taught, the topics of the several years should give as adequate an understanding of Washington as these children can grasp, and each year should add to their interest in him and their affectionate admiration for him, because there is no mere repetition of what has gone before. Moreover, for the eighth year, when the history again includes his career, there is a wealth of new material to be used—his military genius, with the opportunity of comparing him with Napoleon and other generals of whom the pupils have learned, and his great statesmanship in the dark days of the critical period and in the wonderfully successful days of constructing the new republic and starting it on its career among the nations of the world.

In the same way, if the syllabus in history for the schools of New York City were being used, a comparison of the fifth and eighth year topics would suggest that the fifth grade teacher should hold chiefly to a graphic presentation of the life of typical colonies through the lives of their leaders, with only a simple comparison of

those men in order to bring out the differences in custom and spirit in the various colonies, and with very little emphasis on the development of political institutions, except to show the love of liberty and the desire for self-government felt throughout the colonies,—a point constantly made manifest concretely in the lives of colonial heroes.

It is in making real to the children this colonial spirit, and later the spirit of the Revolution, that some of us have found the justification for developing the custom of turning history stories into plays after the stories themselves have been thoroughly absorbed. To the children who, under the guidance of their teacher, have played the coming of the Pilgrims to America, the sturdy virtues of the Pilgrims are no mere abstraction, but are almost as real as the concrete fact that the voyage was made in the "Mayflower." I think this is largely due to helping the children work up the play themselves, instead of presenting it to them ready-made to learn. But what has all this to do with the use of a syllabus? Only this, that it further illustrates how to differentiate the fifth grade work from the eighth by keeping the former concrete and graphic, and is moreover a way to secure a remembrance, even in the eighth, of the characteristics of the life in the different colonies, valuable as a basis for eighth year study of the same period.

If there has been this concrete presentation of the colonial life in the fifth year, the eighth year teacher should count upon it, and eliminate much of the earlier detail, and instead should make the pupils feel a zest in attacking these old stories from a new point of view,—to see just how one colony differed from another, how this came to be true, and what differences seem most important; what forms of local government different colonies were developing, and, finally, in what ways all the colonies were alike,—as, for example, in the matter of quarrelling with crown officials if they trespassed on colonial rights.

Thus far, we have been considering the study of the whole syllabus as a means of avoiding trespassing on the ground of another grade, but this has led us to consider, incidentally, another reason for studying the whole syllabus,—the importance of doing so as a means of ascertaining why the syllabus for one's grade is

just what it is, and how it is best to treat its topic. I think this point is worth considering at greater length.

It must often happen in looking over a syllabus for the first time that a feeling of great dissatisfaction is experienced because the organization differs from the teacher's own, and because the topics differ from those she would have chosen. A humble-minded sympathetic study of the whole syllabus will often throw much light on the reason for the organization used and for the choice of topics as well, resulting perhaps in a change of opinion on the part of the teacher as to what is best for the pupils of such a grade, and a new conception of how to treat the topics so as to get the best results in the light of the rest of the outline. It should help also in the decision as to what topics are to be emphasized and what to be subordinated. A syllabus frequently suggests more topics than can well be given in detail, but a plan can be worked out to teach certain typical events with sufficient detail to make mental pictures possible, and to teach only the chief points of other events, if they picture, in the main, conditions similar to those already taught. Of course this is what we do constantly to a certain extent, but I think we need to do it still more, if we are to secure time for the graphic telling of important things, without which history never becomes a reality.

It is wholesome, I believe, to get a habit of regarding one's syllabus in the way I have just suggested,—as something from which much can be learned, as something really valuable,—for only so can one get the most out of it. Almost any syllabus offers some new and valuable suggestion and certainly some of the latest ones are extremely good. Constant study of the one for the schools in this city as it was revised in 1905 has confirmed me in the belief that it is not only admirable in many ways, if considered as a course that might be introduced into any school, but that it is a remarkably wise one for a big city with such a large corps of teachers and with such a host of children coming from such widely differing homes. The American history in the fifth and sixth years, the English history with the connection with American history in the seventh, and the more mature study of American history with some European background in the eighth is a plan suf-

ficiently simple and definite to make possible thorough and adequate teaching of it. Not the least valuable part of this syllabus is the course in civics. One of its best features is that it begins with those activities of the city government with which a child is somewhat familiar and about which he very much needs to know,—and about which we hope to instruct his parents through him. In the upper grades there is a more general study of the government—national, state, and city. Both with local government in the fourth year (under the subject of geography) and with national government in the sixth, the work begins with that which is heroic and in which the concrete individual looms large; in the first case the hero is the fireman, in the second case the life-saver and lighthouse keeper. This plan I regard as masterly, for the children's interest is caught and held until they can be introduced to more prosaic topics,—in connection with the fire department, the child's own home duties regarding the prevention of fire, in the other case the general framework of the national government.

Different as it is, the syllabus recommended by the Committee of Eight seems to me also very much to be admired. Its sixth year work with its picturing of Greek, Roman, Medieval, and Renaissance civilization is so fine that it would surely be worth sacrificing some other points in order to make room for it. Perhaps I feel this strongly, because I never had more pleasure in teaching history to children than I did along those lines one year in the late nineties at Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn. I have always been very glad that it fell to my lot to be initiated into the teaching of that block of work at a time when it was rarely given in the elementary school. If, however, the course were to be introduced into a large school system, it is just in the teaching of that sixth year work that I think there would be most difficulty in getting successful treatment, unless it were possible to gather the teachers of the grade together and systematically to present to them an inspiring notion of what the year's work should mean. It would be a great pity to have it badly taught when it is so valuable.

I am not quite sure that my topic would seem to justify me in stopping to pay tribute to the two syllabi that I know best, but perhaps I may offer the plea that I have been illustrating the point that

to study two syllabi is a wise way to enrich the treatment of either. I am sure that if I were teaching English history in one of our New York schools and had read the syllabus of the Committee of Eight, I should make a greater effort to make that course include some picture of classic civilization through reference to Roman life than I otherwise would have done: and if I were teaching in one of the lower grades, I should teach the local civics with more zeal because the Committee of Eight has so strongly expressed its approval of that course by including many similar topics in its own course at that point. So strongly do I believe in this study of a second syllabus that I have always presented to my training school students, in connection with our city syllabus, an outline of one of just the type suggested by the Committee of Eight, at first using for this purpose Mr. Bourne's program, as outlined in his "Teaching of History and Civics," coupled with my own experience of such a course, and since the plan of the committee itself has been issued, outlining that to my students. The time thus spent I have felt to be fully justified by the interest and appreciation with which our own course has been regarded.

Having discussed the ways in which the teacher may get aid from the syllabus in organizing her work, we may now consider how the teacher may help the children to realize a little of that organization as they complete their study of one group of topics after another. In grades below the fifth not much can be done along this line; the children are merely getting a little of the historical atmosphere, are learning to love a few heroes, and are beginning to celebrate a few historical anniversaries with some patriotic fervor; but in the upper grades an increasing understanding of the syllabus can be obtained. Even in the fifth grade it seems advisable for me to build up a simple outline during the oral presentation of the story, as an aid to the children in reproducing it later. As the term progresses, I should be inclined to incorporate the main points of such an outline into a chart to which reference could be made from time to time in order to bind the whole term's work together. Such a chart would be largely an adaptation of the syllabus to the children's understanding and needs. This idea I first saw worked out by one of our graduates who had felt

strongly the need I have mentioned and had made her outline on heavy manila paper in writing large enough to be seen across the class-room. She evidently felt that she could not get along without it. As the pupils grow old enough to make notebooks these could take the place of the chart, the outline for the term changing in character from grade to grade till, in the eighth year, they might include reviews of different topics, each covering quite a period of years, such as one for slavery or for the United States Bank.

If possible, in the eighth year, there should be a still larger organization of historical knowledge, and this too can be based on the syllabus. I believe the pupils should be made to realize, in a very simple fashion, how all the history they have learned in the several grades is closely related, and that, throughout, there has been a plan in the minds of their teachers by which, at the end, their knowledge of history should have a certain completeness and unity. The course of study for the schools of our own city particularly lends itself to this treatment, so that it should be possible to make the pupils see the meaning of the preliminary study of their own history, the relation of the course in English history to this, and finally why there is reference to both English and other European history in the year they have just been covering. In this way, perhaps, they can come to see the true position of our country in the development of western civilization, feeling justly proud of its share in the world's work, but realizing that it is only one of many nations helping in that work, realizing too that it is by no means a country free from faults, and so finally they may begin to see that the loyal citizen not only loves his country and praises it, but tries always to make it a better country.

Thus far the lists of books that form so important a part of syllabi have not been mentioned. I have especially in mind such a varied list as is offered by the Committee of Eight. Such a list is not included in the syllabus for the schools of New York City, but a very full list for both teachers and pupils, the one for the latter carefully graded, is published by the Board of Education in its lists of supplies. Aside from using the books of such lists freely for her own preparation and for class books for the children to read, what further use can the teacher make of these lists? Can the

children gradually gain a concrete notion of the place of a bibliography in their field of study, while so formidable a term is carefully kept from them? I believe this to be possible, at least in the upper grades. A little list of books to be taken from the library, either the school library or that of the community, can be made as the term progresses, each associated with the period of history with which it is connected, and from time to time a few minutes can be taken to hear in what books from the list the children have been led to read, if they are histories, or what books of fiction they may have read completely. In my own experience in a sixth grade the time I spent in this way I felt to be most fruitful. The children interviewed me on the subject outside of class in order to discuss books they had been reading. Moreover they wanted to add to the list themselves, and something was possible in the way of standardizing their judgment by showing them why one book was worthy to go into such a list and another not, why one bit of historical fiction was valuable and another merely entertaining. I remember the relative merits of two popular writers were warmly discussed and I particularly recall the talk over one book of which I now recollect neither the author nor the title. The book was proposed for the list by one of the girls and I frankly stated that I was unfamiliar with it. I asked if any one else had read it. One of the most reliable, wideawake boys rose and said that he had read it and he was sure I would approve of it, that it told of the days of chivalry and it seemed to him that it must be like those times. His opinion had weight with me and I remember I told him so, but that I felt I must see the book myself. The children loaned it to me and I found their judgment had been sound, but I finally decided to exclude it, because of some religious point involved; but this, too, they were able to appreciate.

By the time the pupils have reached the eighth year, the practice of looking up simple special topics in reference books should add to their conception of the purpose of a book-list. They will at least have come to realize that books vary in value. They may have had concrete experience of their own inability to judge of whether an author has been careful as to facts or not, by having offered incorrect information on some point about which they had

read in a book not recommended by the teacher, with the result that she inquired as to the source of the information and warned them as to depending upon that particular book. Such experiences should show the need of a list to indicate what books may be safely consulted on any given topic.

If by studying the syllabus a teacher can get help in organizing her work, if it aids her in bringing a notion of that organization to the minds of her pupils, and if the book-lists, besides guiding both teacher and pupils in their reading, help to suggest to the pupils the definite place of a book-list in the field of study, then it seems to me the syllabus has been well used.

THE USE OF A SYLLABUS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

ANNA BOYNTON THOMPSON

THAYER ACADEMY, SOUTH BRAINTREE, MASS.

I am asked to speak of the use of the syllabus. Will you bear with me while I do a little thinking?

The use of any object is determined by its nature, therefore our first question is, What is the essential nature of the syllabus? The derivation of the word, *συν* and *λαμβάνειν* tells us: it is a "seizing together," a grasping of the whole subject or object in its real being. But the "real being" of any whole in this "many in oneness" which we call our Universe, is its underlying organic structure, its inner law determining the relation of each part to the whole and to every other part; therefore a syllabus in its essential nature is an exposition of relations, a logical unfolding of a subject in obedience to its inner law.

Now we see what the use of a syllabus should be: this weighing of relations that we may tabulate them exactly, this search for the inner compelling law which is the heart of the syllabus, is the work of the logical faculty; hence the use of the syllabus should be primarily to train the logical faculty of the student. And let me say in passing that I hold the vital—the elemental and the consummating—function of teaching to be the training of the faculties; and the first duty and the chief end of each teacher, to discover what special powers of the mind are rightly exercised in the special branch he teaches. Then his task is self-evident, he must see to it that every lesson in his class-room gives direct and vigorous training to this special group of faculties.

Our second question now asks itself: How can we use the syllabus to train the logical faculties of the student?

First, we must lead the student to see what perhaps he has never dreamed before, that everything in life—be it fact, or event, or situation—if it is to have value or meaning for us, must be the

manifestation of law—the law of its own freedom—and that our only task is to discover law and then actualize it. Our world must not be a mere hodge-podge, whether hodge-podge of notes, or of facts, or of people. All that meets us—historical material, personal relations, business issues—must be compelled to assume the form of reasoned order. The human task κατ' ἐξουσίαν is to impose logical form upon the flux of experience, to compel chaos to enter the forms of mind. And showing the growing lad how to do this work is the supreme achievement of teaching: if we allow mere note-taking, or the use of unorganized, heterogeneous topics, we are traitors to our task and stab the soul of the syllabus.

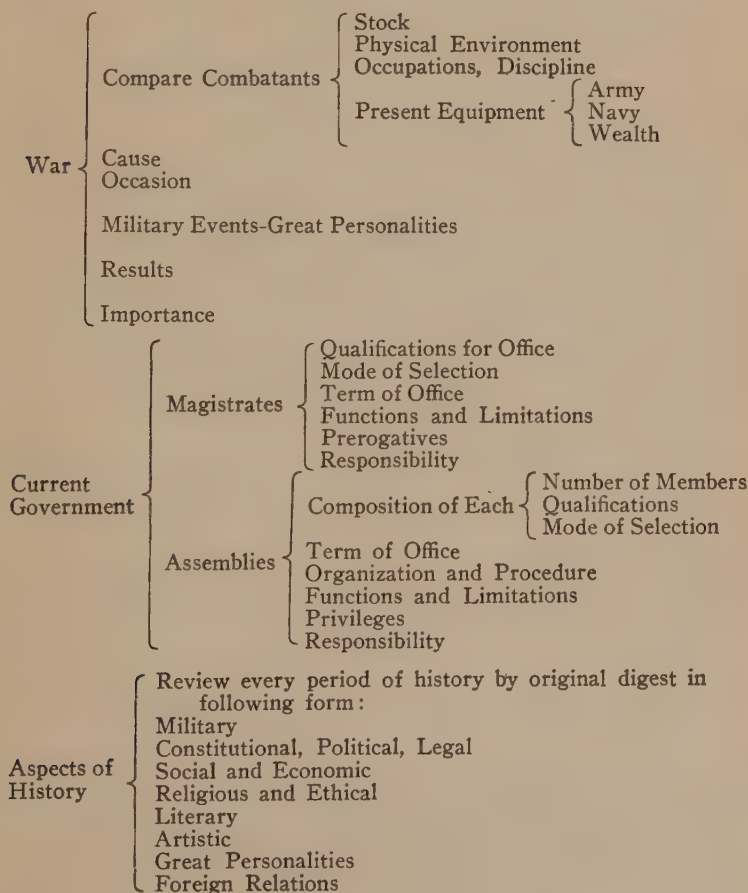
I begin this search for law with the situation of the moment—the class-room, and show the students that they are never to obey me as individual, but that we all, teacher and students alike, are to seek the law of the situation, the law of conduct for teacher and pupil that shall actualize itself in perfect teaching and perfect learning, and when we have discovered it in its full details both teacher and student are to render it equal obedience. Any offence against the organic law of class work is examined and sentenced from this rational point of view.

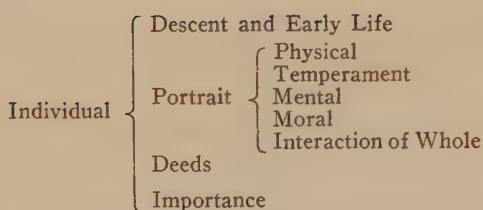
Next we seek the inner law of some one of the great topics in history which are always recurring. What, for instance, does a war, from its very nature, demand that we should know in order to understand its full meaning, and in what order shall we seek this knowledge? First, we must “compare the combatants” in regard to stock, physical environment and resources, occupations, present equipment in army, navy, wealth, etc. This comparison will usually make plain the “cause” of the war. Next comes the “occasion” of the outburst of hostilities. Then, of course, we must look for the “important military operations” and the “great personalities” brought to view. Now we are prepared for the “results” of this special war. Finally we measure its “importance” by comparing it with the other wars we have studied.

In short, the student must learn from the very beginning that there is a natural, simple order in learning and in presenting a subject, which the subject by its nature imposes upon him (M. Boudroux would bid me reverse the statement!) and that the cardinal

sin in mental work is disregarding this order and, instead, merely collecting hodge-podge notes, topics, or what-not. A logical framework must underlie the work of every day and every hour. The first requisite of success is power of selection and organization, and he who is not born with it, must be born again, whatever travail it cost, if he is to be even a vegetable in this world of ours.

As a basis for correction and amplification, I will put down in syllabus form what seems to me logical analysis of a few of these constantly recurring topics:





When we apply these general forms to special historic events the students are trained to fill them out in writing with weighty specific content in the fewest words possible.

Now that the class has begun to see that their work in history is to consist of individual moulding of given material into coherent, logical wholes, we are ready to turn to the text books. In the years in which I introduce new text books the chief work of the class is to prepare at home each his own syllabus of the lesson, and to revise it in the class-room as suggested by the class discussion. After this repeated working over of the facts, learning them is an easy matter. But the unrighteous habit of passing down digests from class to class makes such a course impossible after one analysis of a given set of books. For the past few years we have been using as texts: Greek History, Bury and Capps; Roman History, Mommsen; English History, S. R. Gardiner's Student's History and Taswell-Langmead; and I am giving the students typewritten digests and requiring the following treatment:

(1) First read over digest of day's lesson and forecast by use of past knowledge, judgment, historical imagination, etc., what the book will probably say;

(2) Read the text and mark carefully what you select for your recitation in class;

(3) Read collateral books and insert new topics in proper place in digest;

(4) Now revise digest, making, as far as possible, an original one;

(5) Learn very carefully, dwelling upon logical connection of sub-topics, revised digest, to write in class;

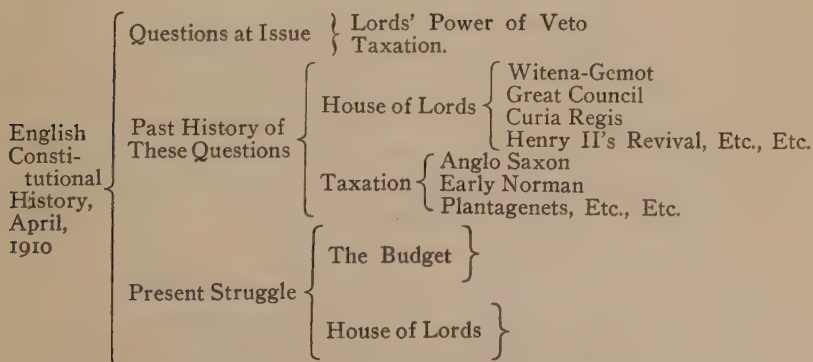
(6) Prepare for a class a full oral presentation of the whole subject, founded upon revised digest. This exercise is excellent mental

training, for it requires a two-fold activity; with one current of consciousness they must cling to the digest, while exploratory currents are at the same time going out to the different books to bring in material for the amplification of the digest. A "bald digest" is a dire disgrace in a class "fluent," as we call it;

(7) Cards. This is our mental gymnastics, our baseball game in history. The teacher throws rapidly question after question, evolving each from previous question or answer, in such manner as to set the skeleton of the subject in bold relief. Instantaneous answers are required, or another name is called. This exercise trains in logical evolution of a subject, in concentrated attention, and alertness of mind.

Besides this text-book work we call for original digests all through our work. If you should enter my school room now, you would see upon the board the date of every school Monday in the year with references for required digests beside it.

Especially do we wish to cultivate the feeling that history and literature are ever-flowing streams, making themselves now in direct continuation of the past, hence we pay great attention in English History to current events. Our present digest, that we are filling out from our daily history lesson and from our English Periodicals is the following:



Extemporaneous digests: Constantly the students are bidden to take pencil and paper and set down in digest form a talk from the

teacher, a class lecture from a student or their knowledge of some current topic, as "The Trusts," "The Philippines," etc.

This training of the students to search for logical relations and to give the results of their labor in the form of a coherent whole, is felt by them to be of great practical value. They know how to set to work upon a new subject, what to look for, and how to use it when found. In their college vacations when they visit us, they say that this power of intelligent, purposeful action, whether with books themselves, or in conference statements, or in drawing up research reports, sets them on a coign of vantage in the freshman class. Indeed, some of our graduates who have gone directly to the law school tell me that they find that they have mastered before entrance, the art of drawing up a brief.

So far we have been talking about training the kind of mind that naturally chooses words for self-expression. But in every class there are some boys who naturally turn to concrete modes; they see more meaning in lines and forms and color than in words; they are the stuff that machinists, engineers, architects, artists, are made of. Logical training in syllabus-making must be given them in their own language, they must be allowed to express relations, proportional importance, unity, etc., by color, diagrams, charts, etc. The ways are endless. For instance, let them use Sir Wm. Hamilton's method of colored pencils: bid them underline every day the part of the text that treats of military matters with red; of constitutional, with blue; of economic, with yellow, etc., etc. Then require them to take up these separate aspects of history through long periods. A little training in visualization will enable them to do it easily. Or bid them represent the Rise and Growth, Greatness and Glory, Decline and Fall of the Roman State by an appropriate diagram, which shall show proportional subdivisions into lesser periods with correct relative placing of data, events, names, etc. Again, ask them to express on an outline map the migrations, as the Gothic scallop and scroll, a Vandal Five, and Attila's Tripod, each having all necessary names and dates. Or, let them represent the Anglo-Saxon achievements in popular representative rule before 1066 as a pyramid with legends summing up the essentials of each stage. Or, have them picture forth the relative importance of the

great monuments of English liberty as a series of mountain peaks, each peak bearing an inscription which gives its core of importance.

Keep always before them, when studying English history, your own chart of English literature and Dr. Flaischlen's chart of German literature—the most wonderful graphic syllabus I know. For art, make something much better than my "Graphic Companion to Greek and Roman Studies," and let it be open on every desk during every recitation period. Let the class bring a library card-syllabus in a box. Then tip over the box, mix the contents, and demand instant rearrangement. In short, stimulate to original expression of logical relations in concrete form, and for suggestions, counsel study of the Statistical Atlas of our Eleventh Census. Step by step with this work we develop the power of visualization, and most students when once they have made the diagram, have learned the facts, for the picture with legends is printed on the brain.

Another most useful syllabus-making is the classification of our current event cuttings in pamphlet cases, and the analysis of the case by library cards. But specification is useless; the only limit of syllabus-making cards is the ingenuity of the teacher and the amount of stimulus given the boys. Work of this kind is just as fruitful in commercial and in technical schools as in the academy. One of my "past boys," who has gone into the canning business, said to me the other day: "Miss Thompson, I often think that my business is nothing but your old history lessons in another form; first I collect all my material from my sources, Philadelphia, Hawaii, West Indies, Mexico, the South, etc., etc.; then I organize it into large topics—my factories on the Pacific shore, in the Southern States, and here in the East. Next every large topic, i. e. every factory, I organize in a wholly logical way, defining sharply all the relations between superintendent, foreman, hands, etc. I look most carefully at every detail, seeing just what is its proper place in my whole economy and sometimes I can put it into the field of a by-product, which raises it at once to the rank of a large topic. Then my advertising I treat in the same way. It is all logical synthesis and analysis applied to canned goods."

DISCUSSION

D. C. KNOWLTON, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J.:

In opening this discussion I shall confine myself almost altogether to the use of the syllabus in the secondary school, as my experience has been confined to its use there. I must confess to some surprise in finding that there are so many species of that pedagogic genus, syllabus. In laying emphasis upon the purpose of the syllabus—"the training of the logical faculty of the student"—the previous speaker has assumed that any device which tends "to unfold a subject according to its own inner law" is *ipso facto* a syllabus; and has proceeded from this assumption to still another, that any unfolding of a *fragment* of the subject is likewise a syllabus. Possibly I am in error in the matter, but I prefer to adhere to the old-fashioned definition and look upon a syllabus as nothing more or less than a concise summary of the main points of a subject. I shall, therefore, limit myself in this discussion to syllabi of this kind. I would classify them under the following heads: (1) Those designed primarily for the use of the teacher; (2) those designed primarily for the use of the student, to serve as a guide in the preparation of his work; and (3) those designed primarily for purposes of review.

Of the first type I shall have little to say. Miss Hedge has pointed out very clearly the main purposes served by such a syllabus. I would like to bear testimony to the help derived from a comparison of syllabi, especially in giving the teacher a new point of view, or a fresh aspect of the subject. Time prevents my giving any attention to the outline which may be designed for purposes of review, and I shall therefore confine my remarks to syllabi of the second class.

The use of such a syllabus is determined in part by the skill with which it is constructed. A good syllabus, that is to say, a usable syllabus, should possess the following characteristics: it should be logical and natural. By natural I mean not forcing the subject into unnatural grooves; it should follow the natural order of the events themselves. It should be simple and definite, expressed in the simplest terms. Care should be exercised to avoid unusual or technical expressions which convey little, if any, meaning. The student should be able to grasp readily the phrasing of the topic. The subdivisions of such an ideal syllabus should not be carried too far. Some of this work may with profit be left to the student. It should be elastic enough so that it can readily be adapted

to any grade or adjusted to any limit of time. It should be suggestive, rather than didactic. Possibly this word didactic does not convey the contrast intended. My idea would be that the syllabus should not lay down the facts or principles involved, but should merely suggest them. Finally, the references should be carefully selected. The danger here—and it is one that I have time and time again experienced in my own case—is that the teacher shall include references to books which, although they may contain the information, repel rather than attract the student by their general character. Let the list be brief, but let it include books which are interesting and stimulating.

When the program committee asked me to open this discussion, they suggested that I say a few words about the preparation of such an ideal syllabus. Not that I have ever produced one, for my best efforts in this direction have fallen far below perfection. It is “a work of art” and like all works of art is not struck off at a moment’s notice. It takes shape much as the block of marble under the hand of the sculptor; and at the end, alas, it falls far short of what he would have it. Perfection has not been attained; it may even seem farther off than ever.

The beginnings of such a syllabus are of the most humble character. To take a leaf from my own experience. The present syllabus which I am now using in English history was based originally on a course of lectures which I attended as a Junior in college. The main topics and some of the sub-topics discussed by the professor formed the basis, but I fear that the professor who delivered that course would fail altogether to recognize his handiwork in the form in which the syllabus is now cast. My syllabus in ancient history, which is at present in process of evolution, had its beginnings some years ago in the summaries which I made for my own guidance in teaching my first class in Greek history. They were based largely on a comparison of several textbooks supplemented by such outside reading as Bury, Botsford, Abbott, Holm and the Epoch Series. I have found that such syllabi as the New England History Teachers’ Syllabus and the various outlines of college courses have proven most helpful in arranging material in the most effective fashion for classroom presentation.

I once had a theory—a beautiful theory as I conceived it, and I therefore cherished it—that every course in history which I gave in the high school should have a more or less distinctive character; that the material to be discussed should be approached from a different standpoint. For example, the first, or elementary course, should lay great stress on the biographical element, the second on the culture element (the so-called *Kulturgeschichte* phase), and the third on—well, I have forgotten now just how I had worked that

out—but the grand culmination should be a class where reason reigned supreme, where the atmosphere fairly vibrated with thought waves and each student had become a keen interpreter of the past in terms of the present. Some of these air castles have vanished; I fear we are far away from a millennium of this character. One thing I think we can and do recognize, however, and that is that there is a different point of contact which must be recognized by the syllabus maker as he prepares his material for the unfolding mind of the student. History cannot be presented to the student of the fourth year grade in the same fashion as to the beginner. This fact must be recognized in the preparation of a syllabus. There are other things which must be kept before the mind of the teacher in preparing an outline for study, as, for example, the amount of work expected and the time and attention to be given to special topics.

Miss Salmon tells us in a recent issue of the *History Teacher's Magazine* that "the preparation of such an outline may be excellent practice for the instructor but in the hands of the student it becomes a form of peptonized predigested mental food." Although this criticism was directed at the use of a college syllabus, I wondered whether it might not be applied with equal force to the use of the syllabus in the secondary school. I resolved to enlighten myself a little on this point by taking the students into my confidence and ascertaining, if possible, how they used the syllabus. Perhaps I can contribute nothing of greater value to this discussion than to give you the benefit of my investigations. The following questions were submitted to the three upper classes in our school:

1. How many history courses have you had?
2. Have you found a topical outline of the work to be covered helpful? If so, how?
3. Have you ever used the paragraph headings in your text-book as such an outline? If so, have you found this practice equally helpful?
4. Which of these two methods do you prefer: (1) following an outline placed in your hands; or (2) a close dependence upon the text-book, where little, if any, emphasis is placed on a particular outline? Why?

About two hundred answers were received, the majority of which came from third year students. Many of these had taken three half-year courses in history and many of them had been under different instructors and so they had had the benefit of different methods. In general the testimony was almost overwhelmingly in favor of the use of a syllabus. It was surprising how few students made any use of the paragraph headings in place of a more formal outline, even in cases where the instructor did not supply the outline.

The following answers embody the principal objections to the use of a syllabus:

(1) "I don't like to be bound to anything and be dependent upon it.

2. "I do not care very much for it. It has not proved so particularly advantageous because the few words therein were not always sufficient to recall past facts or occurrences." Here is a case apparently of a student who recalls the facts by means of the pictures or by the appearance of the printed page.

3. "It saves time," referring, of course, to the book alone.

4. "An outline may leave out some points emphasized in the book." Here is illustrated a common attitude of reverence for the text-book.

5. "I can understand what I am reading without having to refer to an outline all the time and I don't get so confused in hunting for things in the order in which they appear in the outline except the main topics."

6. "It (*i.e.* the book) seems to run more smoothly and you can get things in your head easier."

7. "I would prefer the text-book study as, since our lessons are longer, I should never have time to use an outline." Here is a case of a student who has begun another course and has found that the outline method consumes too much time if followed systematically.

In cataloguing the various reasons which were given for preferring the outline, I have tried to group these in such a way that the various uses to which the outline was put may be clearly indicated. This has meant, in some cases, a repetition of the same idea, but the language used varies just enough perhaps to throw considerable additional light on the student's point of view.

1. "It is more definite and orderly. It prevents one from becoming confused as to the facts and their relation to the history of the country." Another says, "It seems clearer and more definite than the paragraph headings."

2. "The topics seem to be put in a natural order."

3. "It places like things together under one heading which makes them easier to remember." "It condenses the lesson and makes studying come easier." "If the lesson is assigned in topics it is divided and is therefore easier to understand and to work out." "It fastens the events in your mind much more than if they were mixed with a description of a king, or the dress of the times, or customs."

4. "You have a background to start from and each topic is a suggestion to you." "If we read the lesson in the book and then

glance at the outline, the main topics bring back to our mind also the details."

5. "It cuts out a great deal of work over unimportant things." This idea recurs in various forms. "The points of importance are emphasized. If the book is depended upon a good deal of unimportant and useless matter must be remembered." "Too much all at once causes confusion." "It shortens the time which otherwise would be required in the preparation of the lesson." "It helps one to select the important events and not waste time on minor topics, as an inexperienced student is so likely to do." "The outline makes the minor details less bothersome and stamps the most important topics in our mind."

6. "It would result in my obtaining a broader view of the subject." "It would cover a broader field."

7. "I've found a topical outline helpful only in reviewing. For that I found it invaluable. I have been able to get the daily lesson just as well (by using the paragraph headings), but I forget what we've had two or three days before; whereas, with an outline I could easily look back and, seeing the main topics, could remember the subject matter of the review." This use of the outline seems to have been a common one, and is expressed in various ways. "More for review than for everyday use." "At examination time we have only to read through the outline instead of reading our text-book, and then if we find there is anything we don't know, we refer to our text-books." "After I have studied the lesson, I like to go over the outline to see how much of it I know."

8. "It suggests the way in which to attack the lesson."

9. "There are many points in that sort of an outline that I would probably not have noticed had I not seen them there."

10. "By reading the outline carefully I can get an idea what the lesson is about."

11. "Often do we find certain events told in a manner hard to understand and the outline aids me often in clearing these hard points." "It gives me a better idea of just how things happened—a better idea of cause and result."

One student expresses himself as favoring the outline "provided we have gone over it so that I can understand it." Another, carefully weighing the pros and cons, writes as follows: "There are some cases where I prefer an outline and others where I prefer to use the paragraph headings. A topical outline is helpful when the period is complicated. Sometimes the paragraph headings are chronological, when a topical outline, classing events under certain heads, is very much more helped, but again, the paragraph headings in chronological order help to place more clearly before one the order of the events."

HOW TO USE A SYLLABUS IN COLLEGE; WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF THE INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN HISTORY AT DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

HERBERT DARLING FOSTER
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

A syllabus for college use must have much the same general purpose as one intended for secondary schools, namely, to secure proper sequence, unity, and proportion through its emphasis and omissions, and to make possible reading outside a text-book. In its use, both in school and college, the teacher must guard against over-emphasis of the mechanical, or neglect of the human element.

Some of the reasons which call for a syllabus in the school apply with added force to its use in college. It becomes a necessity to ensure some sort of unity among instructors where a considerable number are utilized in the large introductory course. The student needs it to tell him what he is expected to do and where he may find his material, in a course which at first perplexes him with an emphasis upon the use of many books in a large library, and which misleads him with its apparently easy reliance upon lectures and disregard of any very definite work. The ordinary freshman or sophomore who takes up the introductory college course in history has had comparatively little experience in handling books or working in a library of any size. He needs definite guidance regarding the better historical literature, and definite incentive to make him realize what a delightful, but serious task real historical work is.

Moreover, there are other delightful vistas opening before the entering freshman. Wholesome college activities and friendships, "sermons in running brooks" with fish for elusive texts, the freedom "simply to bask and ripen," to "take the sun and wind into his pulses," the attractive college creed that one gets more from his fellows than from books and teachers, all this delectable lotus diet tempts him to forget the best men who have lived, the best books

that have been written, and bravest deeds that have been done which lie ready at his hand as they never will again. He is willing to be led by his well-meaning instructors between breakfast and lunch through historical pastures, if they be still green with Nineteenth Century verdure, but he likes to feel his afternoons and evenings his own (as we do); and he is apt to forget he is expected to *feed* beside the still waters, if he would have his soul restored. He is far too apt to trust in the goodness and mercy of the teacher, who does not like to have an excessive number of failures in his course, and in the ambitious tutor and seminarist who prides himself on the number he has saved through extreme unction the night before the final examination. Even the sophomore has had a year largely consisting of required work with little training in the use of the library; and he is possessed of a pardonably exaggerated idea of his increased importance and his responsibility for freshmen.

How to increase historical mindedness in a group of several hundred such lively, lovable and extremely human freshmen and sophomores is the problem of the teacher who gives the introductory course in history in a growing American college. To give it effectively one must, before he begins, thoroughly understand not only the historical field and the historical method, but also the seemingly unhistorical human material with which he is principally concerned.

College syllabi may be divided into three types. One has been for many years represented by the excellent outlines of Professor Munro, of Wisconsin, and Professor Dow at Michigan, to which probably all of us who have constructed a college syllabus are glad to acknowledge our indebtedness. These syllabi analyze the topics with some minuteness. Much briefer is the little list of topics and fresh and valuable references which Professor Haskins issues at Harvard. A syllabus occupying a middle ground between these two types was made out at Dartmouth seven years ago by Professor Fay and myself. This did not analyze the subject-matter so fully as the Wisconsin or Michigan syllabi, but was somewhat fuller than the Harvard outline, averaging about a page for an exercise.

The Dartmouth syllabus differs from both the other types in marking out the precise nature of each exercise. It indicates for each exercise three things: (1) What portion of the course is to be cov-

ered; (2) whether the exercise is a lecture or a recitation; and (3) what reading, map or written work is to be done by the student. The two distinctive features of the *use* of the syllabus are: (1) the insistence upon the requirement of daily work; and (2) the provision for bringing each member of the department into systematic, personal relations with the undergraduate at the beginning of his work in history.

In discussing the topic, how to use a syllabus in college, one feels some embarrassment, for the answer has to be based so largely on personal experience. An exchange of experience has, however, a certain historic as well as pedagogic value. Perhaps the one theory on which we can all agree is that a college and, if possible, a secondary teacher should make out his own outline, which is better for his use than that of anyone else, however much he may be indebted to the syllabi of his colleagues.

To indicate, even briefly, the results of an eight years' experience in the making and using of three editions of a college syllabus, involves giving the essential features of the problem before us in a small college like Dartmouth with 1122 undergraduate men—and no women to raise the standard of scholarship and chivalry. We are not training teachers or specialists, but men who go largely into business, law and politics. We are dealing, moreover, with nearly all the men (95%) in each class. We must, therefore, give only so much of specialized training in history as is consistent with the attainment of that culture which comes from historical knowledge; but, on the other hand, we must afford sufficient training to develop within the mass of undergraduates something of that fairness of mind, love of truth, and willingness to take trouble in order to understand the two sides of a man or a question, which go to make up the essence of historical mindedness. Such a double task is sufficiently arduous to warrant all the aid that can be obtained through a syllabus.

For the last few years, from 270 to 330 men, an average of 300, have taken the course, about three-fourths of them sophomores and most of the remainder freshmen. All history is elective, but nearly every undergraduate takes at least the introductory course, partly because undergraduate sentiment runs that way, but also

because that sentiment is backed by a rather friendly attitude in other departments, so that History 1-2 is made a prerequisite for thirty-nine other courses in history, economics and political science, and for two popular courses in English and American literature. The course is recognized as one of the hardest in college, but the syllabus enables every student to know before he elects it, what the course is like. One of the uses of a printed syllabus is to give to the student who is making out his electives, full printed information regarding the field, the method and the amount of work demanded in a course.

The field covered in the introductory course has always been European History, beginning with the German migrations. At first the time available was but two-thirds of a year and the course extended only through the Reformation. When a full year was secured it was extended first to 1715, then to 1789; and this year, in response to a growing demand, it comes down to 1870. As the majority of the men (57%) who take History 1-2 take no other course, and as only 18½% elect a course in nineteenth century European history, we felt the last century should be included in the one course which everybody takes. About 36% of the undergraduates elect a one semester course in the political history of the United States since 1783.

In the development of the department from one man to five, each one of the teaching force has kept a hand in this foundation work on which so many historical and allied courses build. This necessitates careful organization to ensure definiteness and unity of treatment. Here the syllabus is of the greatest value, supplemented by the human element through conferences of the whole department. A co-operative course which has grown up naturally and taken on organized shape gradually, offers some decided advantages, especially in a large introductory course where one man cannot carry on all the work. It enables each man, from the head of the department to the newest instructor and the graduate assistant, to know just what the foundation work of the department is and how he can build upon it in later courses; gives an extremely valuable *esprit de corps* and fund of common interest and common knowledge; and acquaints each instructor with a large number of undergraduates at the begin-

ning of their course. On the other hand it is, perhaps, of service to the freshman and sophomore to know something of the personality of the man whom he may, or may not, wish to elect in subsequent courses.

The lecturing to the whole class is done chiefly by the instructors with the larger experience, though the third and even the fourth man have lectured occasionally. For some years we have given about two lectures a week (53 out of 90 exercises) in a course covering three hours per week. This year we have reduced the number of lectures to about one a week (35 out of 90 exercises). This was due partly to the fact that we now make rather more use of a text-book, but mainly to the feeling that we needed to get at the men more frequently in the more direct and personal way offered in recitations. A lecture is given only when it seems to be logically needed through the inadequacy of other material, or when it offers the opportunity to start a current of common interest. This is not mechanically set down once in so often in order to come on a certain day in the week, so as to pass around the use of the large lecture room to other departments. A college should furnish proper rooms for teaching of such sort, and at such times as the nature of the subject demands. For the remaining exercises, about two a week, the students are divided into recitation sections of 20 to 25 men. Each instructor holds recitations and he also has from three to six conferences with each of the students in his sections. Recitation and conference work is not relegated to assistants. Graduate students are utilized to relieve the instructors of most of the correction of quizzes and map work, the instructor retaining enough to get an idea of his students' ability in that line, and to train and test the graduate assistant in his rating of papers.

In making our syllabus we felt it was wiser to mark out precisely what we wanted in our own course, rather than to make a general plan in the hope of getting it adopted elsewhere. This reduces market and profit in the interest of definiteness and efficiency. We have found, however (what must be the experience in any fairly large college course), that the financial question can easily be met by a loan based on future receipts until the sales pay for a first edition and provide for later ones.

The syllabus was constructed on the plan of setting before the student some work worth doing and also of ensuring that a very definite amount and kind of work should be done at each exercise. This plan of work provides: (1) There should be some lectures, but none where the labor is all done by the instructor and where the student comes unprepared; (2) the student should use a required text-book where a satisfactory one is available, such as Emerton's "Introduction to the Middle Ages," or Seebohm's "Era of the Protestant Revolution," with all the latter's limitations; (3) he should also work in the department library as much as is reasonable (on an average, about every other exercise), learning to use the best material indicated for him in the syllabus; (4) he should further be taught how to get at good historical material and how to get something out of it, through suggestions by the instructor in lectures, by means of questions, criticisms and discussions in recitations, and through his own efforts in the preparation of a carefully written report or thesis, based on his own bibliography, notes and outline.

For each exercise in the syllabus, whether lecture or recitation, a definitely prescribed amount of work in text-book or outside reading, or both, is indicated by the use of an asterisk. We ask for and get a minimum of about 30 pages an exercise, or about 90 pages a week. A first-rate man will read at least twice that amount. No attempt is ordinarily made to keep track of the number of pages read by each student. But occasionally a man in whom you can place confidence is in the way of telling you what he has done, and it proves that he has read 3,000 or 4,000 pages in a semester. One such man told me in answer to my question where he had been prepared for college, that he had prepared himself in a sawmill. The thing that had interested him most in his semester's work was the life of the scholar Erasmus.

As the course has been extended to 1870, we have decided to give it greater continuity this year by requiring, in addition to Emerton's "Introduction," and Seebohm's "Era," Robinson's "Introduction to the History of Western Europe." The greater amount of reading still remains to be done outside of these text-books. The amount of reading of definitely prescribed sources is not large—such things as Tacitus' "Germany," Einhard's "Charlemagne," and

selections from Calvin's "Institutes"; but a fair amount of source material is suggested in syllabus and lecture and is voluntarily chosen by students in the ordinary books of selections, like the University of Pennsylvania "Translations and Reprints," and Robinson's "Readings."

After having tried the system of general references *en bloc* for the whole subject covered at one lecture or recitation, and the alternate plan of references grouped under specific topics, we have found the latter more satisfactory in results. In the present syllabus, therefore, after the analysis of the subject-matter of the lecture or text-book, we print a list of "topics for reading" with references under each topic. A "*Reading on One of These Topics" is indicated by the asterisk, as required for certain exercises. For example, in preparation for a recitation on "Monasticism, Its Services and Dangers," a student is required to read a chapter in his text-book and also on one of the following topics: "Why Men Went into the Monasteries"; "St. Benedict and Benedictine Rule"; "Daily life in a Mediæval Monastery"; "The Economic Influence of Monasteries"; "The Services of Monks and Dangers of Monasteries." Each of these topics is followed by several references to the best material. The student, who is all too ready to read a number of pages, rather than to find out about a given subject, is encouraged to read, if practicable, not merely one reference, but to compare the views of Gibbon and Montalembert with St. Jerome's "Plea for a Monastic Life," or with a selection from William James' "View of Asceticism." Occasionally a hint as to the point of view of an account is given, e.g., the emphasis of abuses in the church in Lea's first chapter of the "Inquisition in the Middle Ages," or the favorable side of mediæval church life as portrayed in Cutts, Gasquet and Alzog. Sometimes with no suggestion of the varying point of view, two quite differing estimates of men and their work are put side by side, and differences are occasionally brought out in class discussion, by an interested student, or instructor.

A common basis of knowledge for which each student can be held is furnished by the lecture or the definite text-book work. The topics for individual reading call out a somewhat freer and more stimulating discussion. The student is encouraged to present as

informally as he will, his own difficulties or point of view. Such a discussion in a division of 20 to 25 men who come to know one another and the instructor fairly well is reasonably sure, if managed with fair skill, to stimulate interest and some real thinking. The instructor sees what background the student has or more often what he lacks, and gets a chance to make the undergraduate's effort contribute to the enlightenment of his fellows; through a student's query he sees the sophomore's or freshman's point of view, and through an answer is enabled to clear up a point which a number of men for the first time realize was not clear to them. In a recent recitation, in reply to a question as to the difference between the political views of Luther and Zwingli, a freshman replied: "Luther believed in government by the prince, but Zwingli believed in civil government. Suspicious of the secondary training of the youth in civil government, the instructor found by a perfectly frank reply that the graduate of our public schools had come to college with the notion that civil government meant only such a government as that of the United States.

Written quizzes of ten or fifteen minutes, falling at uncertain intervals, but coming rather oftener than once a week, give spur to preparation for lecture and recitation, and prevent the latter from becoming a rambling exhibition of the knowledge of the instructor rather than an opportunity for the formulation of the student's knowledge or the kindly revelation to himself of his own lack of knowledge. Occasionally a student gives a five-minute summary of his reading. Such a summary is apt to be dull and wooden, save by an exceptionally good student on a particularly felicitous topic, and the results may be generally more suggestively brought out through questions. A really good recitation may sometimes be made to yield a fairly orderly summary of the subject which may occasionally be put with profit upon the blackboard.

The student's work and his ideas are further revealed through individual conferences of ten or fifteen minutes. In the conference the instructor (who already knows the student in recitation) looks over his notes, and gives advice regarding individual needs in the way of note-taking. If the student's notes and answers show he has failed to do his work, he is warned and required to make good his deficiency.

He is also given an outline map and asked to put down places and boundaries on the spot. As his individual tastes appear, suggestions are made as to what might prove of especial interest to him, some indication is given of the distinctive characteristics on relative value of books, and he is encouraged to read less of mere compilations and more of the better historical material. Often the student reveals his special difficulties of temperament or preparation or his ambitions for the future. Such a conference (though it may degenerate into a merely mechanical quiz) presents an opportunity for a close personal relation and mutual understanding, when two human beings get near enough together to tell the color of each other's eyes. Those chances arise only too seldom for a man to do his best service for a younger fellow, but if they come at all it will be not through the large lecture, but through relations established in small divisions or personal conferences. For such work no man can be too experienced, and in this human aspect as well as in his knowledge of the literature the instructor is better qualified than the graduate assistant.

For more specific training in use of historical material each student writes a somewhat careful special report. After rather elementary instruction as to use of a card catalogue and other resources of a library, he prepares a working bibliography with exact references, following a simple model in the syllabus. He then goes over this (usually in conference with the instructor) incorporates the latter's additions, and is given some idea of the relative value of books on the subject. He then submits his notes and an outline of his report, which are criticised. Finally he hands in his complete special report, accompanied by revised bibliography and outline. The student is warned against some obviously careless ways of note-taking and is encouraged to display his ingenuity in developing some system of his own for accumulating and arranging notes, which will suit his individuality better than any syllabus system. The subjects for reports are numerous, about 300, and cover a large range, some of them suggested by colleagues in economics, literature, art, natural science, medicine, engineering, so as to interest men with varied tastes. To prevent the temptation to enter into other men's labors, these special reports are filed until the student

graduates, when they are rarely claimed. Such a report involves much labor by both student and instructor, but it gives one of the most valuable forms of training in the course.

Of historical geography, students are lamentably ignorant and it is difficult to get them to apply in daily work or recitation the teaching of the lecturer or instructor, which appears to them mildly interesting provided it does not entail work on their part. Each student is expected to use his atlas in preparation for an exercise and to bring it to each recitation. He brings it when he remembers it, and is quite ready to open it and regard it with benevolent interest when asked a question. But he is equally ready to close it without any suggestion. Historical geography, like his atlas, is largely a sealed book to the American college student. Lantern slides arouse some interest, but they make only a fleeting impression. It is possible to get a modicum of work done, for the student has to make out certain maps and hand them in or fill them out in recitation or conference, but I must frankly confess the field of historical geography does not seem to appeal to the average student as a vital part of work in history. I fear it seems to him rather a stunt in the instructor's program, to be done when inevitable, just on the eve of written tests, but not something to be cultivated regularly as a foundation for historical knowledge.

To sum up, the syllabus in college seems to have these uses or advantages: (1) It gives a definitely organized plan of work. This is clearly essential to secure unity and proportion in an introductory course with a large number of students and various instructors. (2) It makes possible the employment of many books and of various methods of keeping students at work and giving them proper training and tests. (3) It gives both instructor and student a definite knowledge of what is to be done and when, and ensures proper emphasis, omission and sequence. As a Dartmouth undergraduate expressed it to me on the train yesterday, as he journeyed from a Smith College Glee Club concert to a New York athletic meet, "The syllabus connects up a man's work." (4) It enables the undergraduate to know beforehand something of what he is electing and shows allied departments or a body of advisers what the student has elected. (5) It proves of decided value to students in case of

absence, or in preparing for conference, review and examination. In student parlance, "it connects up a man's work." (6) It gives definiteness and efficiency to a course, lending it a perhaps not undeserved dignity which another course equally good may lack through want of a program.

The dangers of rigidity may be remedied in part by frequent new editions, which are likely to be printed more often if the syllabus is not intended to be a source of income to the makers. The danger of too great guidance for the student may be remedied partly by special reports, and by encouragement to read widely and deeply for himself. These and other dangers may be even more adequately met by using a syllabus with common sense and by leavening the careful program with that human element which all work must possess if it is to have within it the breath of life.

DISCUSSION

EDGAR DAWSON, The Normal College, New York City:

The lateness of the hour prohibits my making any extended remarks on Professor Foster's stimulating paper, even if it were desirable for me to do so. I must say, however, that his discussion has gone far toward removing from my mind a prejudice which I have harbored for some time against the use of a syllabus as an aid to teachers and students, bibliography, maps, outlines, abstracts, free as possible from that prejudice in the hope that the prejudice would be killed, for I feel that I am in the minority and I don't like to stay so, but prejudices, like facts, are stubborn, and that one seems to hold on a little yet. It is already nearly time for us to adjourn, so I shall keep you only a few minutes, and hope that the subject may be discussed as fully as so important a topic deserves.

My most extended experience with the use of a syllabus (all that I have to say has to do with teaching college students, who, of course, have an entirely different problem from that of students of lesser progress) has been with those prepared by students to sell to their fellows as an aid to cramming for examinations. These are highly approved by some students, even some very ambitious and industrious ones, and it is extremely difficult for college authorities to prevent their use. This is particularly true of those dealing with the books assigned for reading. To my mind, the use of such a syllabus is to the study of history, what the use of a translation is to the study of a language. Each almost completely eliminates the educational value of the subject studied. If the acquisition of facts is the object, use a syllabus; if the reading of a book is the prime object, use a translation. But training is the object of college work, and crutches are not helpful to the aspirant for athletic honors.

The papers and discussions this afternoon bid one hesitate, however, to make a general statement about the use of a syllabus without some pretty careful definition of his term. In the minds of some of us the term seems to connote anything from a manuscript or typewritten sheet containing ten or a dozen lines to furnish the main topics of a lecture, to several hundred printed pages of suggestions to teaching history in college classes. I came here with my mind as and any other possible aid except the total contents of the book assigned for reading. This wilderness seems to me to be divisible into three sorts of syllabi: those which guide the student through his

reading by furnishing him with an outline of the subject-matter, those which serve as a skeleton of the lecturer's discussion and of the student's notes on this discussion, and those which contain a mass of general and heterogeneous information. Many syllabi are combinations of two or more of these types, but a discussion of their use must be analytical to some extent.

It is to the first class, whether prepared by students or teachers, that I particularly object. Teachers of history "are primarily engaged in developing a method of independent work on the part of the student, of training him in the processes involved in the collection and interpretation of historical material, and thus furnishing him with the means of independent study." Unless I am mistaken in my opinion of the typical undergraduate, this object of the history teacher will be rather hindered than helped by the use of a printed set of topics and facts, particularly if the matter goes into any detail whatever. To remove the test and the examination from the horizon of the student is next to impossible at any rate, and such a pamphlet is constantly associated in his mind with the questions he is going to be called upon to answer some day, and for which he feels he must prepare concise and definite answers against his time of need. Such a pathfinder, whatever we intend for it, will tempt him to memorize—and I refer to the better class of students—facts of date and detail, or at best, of movements and tendencies; and this is just what we do not want him to set before himself. We want him to read himself into a period and get the training that results from finding himself independently, as every one of us has done at one time or another when the light breaks upon us after a long period of wandering in a pathless wilderness of details. That sort of training is useful to the liberally educated man. He can use such training in his life work, whatever his field may be. I acknowledge the difficulty of giving this sort of training in the very generally offered required course in Mediæval and Modern Europe, but this tempts me to wonder whether we cannot provide a more useful substitute for that course.

As to the usefulness of a syllabus of the lectures, my mind is not at all clear. A very brief outline of the argument may be useful to center the attention of the student on the main current of the speaker's discussion. I have high regard for some teachers who believe unconditionally that it is useful. Some go so far as to say they give the outline so that the student may be free from the drudgery of note-taking and so may concentrate his attention on what is being said, since the important point is often lost in an effort to write down some minor detail. It is humiliating to think that our students have not the strength of mind to follow a speaker for three-

quarters of an hour on a subject with which the student is already more or less familiar. Could it be possible that the fault lies partly with the sort of lectures attempted? Could it be that the lectures are, in some cases, merely text-books boiled down? This subject need not detain us, however, for the lecture, like the recitation system of instruction, is passing, and I believe that many of us will see its end in institutions that can afford to give their students the best, and therefore provide enough teachers to make conferences possible. Such a system does not preclude the use of occasional lectures, such as I understood Professor Foster to say is customary at Dartmouth, for special purposes, when the purpose of the lecture is understood by the student. We hope that when these lectures become common they will not catch the stereopticon germ and encourage even greater weak-mindedness in our hearers.

When I come to the third class of syllabi—those containing a heterogeneous mass of material, I am reminded of an article in a recent number of our excellent friend, the *History Teacher's Magazine*. This article on the teaching of history at Vassar speaks of a pamphlet of twenty-five pages called "Suggestions for the Year's Study." If I understand it, this pamphlet is meant to introduce the student to the library, to indicate to him the proper method of approaching books, to make him reflect on the object of the study of history—in a word, to show him how to use his tool. If this is a syllabus, then let us use one and encourage our students to do so as well. Young people come to college very green as to the use of libraries, books, maps, indices, educational ideals, scholarship, and a number of other very admirable things. We are not surprised at their lack of information and training. If they had the training they probably would not come to us. But it seems to me this aspect of their condition has been too largely overlooked. They have been treated as many a boy is when he is taught to swim—pitched in and told to strike out. The difference between the two cases is that in the latter the boy strikes out because if he doesn't he must sink and swallow water more or less distasteful; in the former, he sees no pressing need for striking out, and when he sinks, as he does without knowing it, he finds the experience temporarily soothing and pleasant.

There is one other use of the syllabus—to organize work for teachers so that a number of persons conducting the same course may each know something of what the others are doing. Such a use is, of course, legitimate, but does not come within the purview of our present purpose, I have already taken more of your time than I intended to do, and I thank you for your kind attention.

ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL AND ITS USES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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The born teacher is a born illustrator. She knows instinctively that nothing helps more to make clear a difficult point and grave it upon the memory, than a good illustration. I happened, the other day, to repeat to a friend of mine, a teacher of mathematics, a statement I had read about a piece of radium no larger than a pin's head which was to be seen at our recent Electrical Exhibition in Philadelphia. The article said that the tiny speck was luminous with a glow caused by its sending forth infinitesimal bits of itself, and that, small as it was, it would continue to dissipate itself that way for a thousand years before there would be nothing left. "What a splendid illustration for a lesson on the theory of limits!" exclaimed my friend in perfect delight. Evidently the habit of seeking illustrations has become second nature with her, as, indeed, it must with us all, if we wish to put life and energy into our teaching. But as the subject before us this morning is illustrative *material*, the visualization of history in fact, I am debarred from dwelling upon the kind of illustration of which my friend was thinking, and which seems to me the most enlightening, the kind that appeals to the imagination or mental vision. I cannot refrain, however, from saying that the teacher who depends upon material illustrations alone, or even chiefly, may easily make of her history teaching a vaudeville performance, entertaining rather than instructive, and by its constant appeal to the eye, prevent largely the development of the subtler and finer traits of the mind which most need development. The Greek maxim, "Nothing in excess," here again proves its unfailing pedagogical value.

A recent article in the *History Teacher's Magazine* gives a care-

ful account of the exhibit of illustrative history material shown at Teachers College in this city during the last session of the American Historical Association. The writer deplores the fact that most of this material came from across the Atlantic, but none of it, apparently, is therefore unattainable and the list is so long and so varied that the teacher of history may easily find that an embarrassment of riches is the chief stumbling block in her use of illustrative material. A wise selection must be her aim, but if, in my attempt to suggest such illustrative material as seems to me best, I omit something that some one else has found valuable, I hope he or she will supply the omission in the time given for general discussion. It is mainly in that way that a practical subject like the one before us may be made really helpful.

Naturally the map, as an indispensable feature of the history class room, comes first to our minds. It is the means par excellence for *introducing* the study of every field of history, and is never more useful than in the first lesson or two with the class that is just beginning high school work, especially if the subject is Ancient History. The geography of Western Asia, of Egypt, of Greece, of Italy, is fairly familiar to such students, and questions upon it, with the map before them, form a common meeting ground, as it were, between elementary school and high school, between the last teacher and the present one, and help the students to overcome the sense of strangeness in their surroundings which often prevents them from apprehending as readily as they otherwise might, the new subject presented to them. The close relation between the geography of a country and the life and character of its people may be brought to their attention by a few questions upon economic conditions in the different sections of our own country, another subject with which they are fairly familiar. We are then ready to lead them to *see for themselves* for instance the effect upon the Phœnicians of the mountains back of them and the sea before them, upon the Egyptians of the central highway of the Nile and its annual overflow, or upon the Greeks of the irregularity of the mountains, the extensive coast, the many neighboring islands, etc. I have seldom known a pupil to forget these particular points when any one of these subjects has been presented to her in this way. Of course,

in teaching such a lesson the teacher is careful to make clear that the physical features of a country are not the sole cause of the distinctive characteristics of its people. Substituting the North American Indians or the Hottentots of Africa for the Greeks in Greece is likely to establish that point without much difficulty.

So much for the map by way of introducing a new field of history. Later on, it must be used constantly for the location of places mentioned in the lesson. A teacher of history has gained much when she finds that her pupils have acquired the habit of turning involuntarily towards the map every time a new place is named. They have learned to realize that locality and neighborhood mean something in history. In addition to the ordinary map, we use in our school MacCoun's Historical-Geographical Charts which indicate the changing boundary line of kingdoms and empires as the result of wars, and make a vivid appeal through the eye to the memory for the *contemporary* character of important periods in the history of different peoples. Take, for example, the subject of the division of Alexander's empire. The one chart not only pictures this, but shows also the extent of Rome's power after the Samnite Wars. As each new period is taken up a new chart is placed before the class, and is a constant aid in keeping before their minds the geographical and political results of the events of the period, and also helps them to realize vividly that other nations were making history during that particular period as well as the one about which they are studying. I make no apology for this last apparently childish claim for the usefulness of these charts, for I am addressing teachers, and you all know, at least those of you who teach in secondary schools know, that first year High School pupils are childish and must be met on their own plane if they are to be helped at all. May I add, parenthetically, that that is the reason why the introduction of college methods of teaching history into the first years of secondary school work is worse than useless—it is absolutely unfair and injurious to the pupils.

McKinley's wall and desk outline maps, too, are useful to the history teacher. Pupils may each be furnished at various times with an outline map of the country whose history they are studying and required to indicate upon it such matters as, in Greek history,

the extent of the Mycenæan civilization, the chief Greek colonies, the allies of Athens and of Sparta in the Peloponnesian War, Alexander's empire, etc. I use wall outline maps of Italy and the Mediterranean countries to keep before the class the progress of Rome's empire. After the study of each successive war the territory annexed is colored on the map with crayons and so from day to day the empire grows again, as it were, before the eyes of the class, and they follow the victorious march of the legions with greater interest and a better understanding of the corresponding increase in Roman arrogance and pride.

Of course, we all use pictures. If no others are procurable at least attention may be called to the illustrations in the text-book in use. Frequently, this is a most illuminating thing to do. For instance, a whole lecture upon the way the Greek sculptor improved upon the lessons he received from the East will not do as much for the class as simply to direct them to open their text-books and compare the pictures of Egyptian and Greek statues with which a text-book on ancient history is invariably illustrated. I rarely fail to question at least my younger pupils about the pictures, if there are any, in their lesson limits. Experience has taught me two things in that direction: First, that unless I do this, very many in the class give little thoughtful observation to these illustrations; and secondly, that if I regularly call their attention to them, they acquire the habit of really studying the pictures, and so many a point is fixed clearly in their minds which otherwise would be hazy and soon forgotten.

But no teacher nowadays need be limited to the text-book for illustrative pictures. She may cover the walls of her class room with them or she may have a portfolio of them to be inspected by the class as occasion demands. The article in the *History Teacher's Magazine* to which I have referred gives in detail not only the different kinds of pictures that one may obtain and where to obtain them, but also the cost of each kind, and it is very slight. There is really no reason why we should not all have the aid in our work that appropriate pictures certainly give. I say "appropriate" because there are pictures purporting to be historical that, in my judgment, are only misleading. We should all be very careful, for instance, not to confuse history and legend in the minds of our pupils. The

"Rape of the Sabine Women" is scarcely an appropriate picture for a secondary school class room, as all of us who have ever endeavored to separate legend and fact for first year pupils in Roman history will abundantly testify.

One way in which to obtain suitable pictures for class use, especially in these days of picture postal cards and universal travel, is to ask the class whether any one can bring such pictures to illustrate a given lesson. It is amazing how often this results in an excellent collection and a deepened and more intelligent interest, on the part especially of the contributors. The cards are easily passed around, too, and in a large class that is an important consideration.

In addition to photographs, postal cards and wall pictures, it seems to me that every history teacher ought to have the use of a stereopticon. Such events as the Crusades, the Reformation, the career of Napoleon, and such subjects as Greek and Roman art can be wonderfully illuminated for the pupils by a lantern talk after the study of the events has been completed. One of the teachers in my department instead of giving such a talk herself, assigns beforehand the subjects of the pictures to the members of the class, each taking one, and then as their respective pictures are thrown upon the screen they describe them to the class. She finds this a very effective use of the lantern, and her classes enjoy it greatly.

It may interest those of my hearers who object to an oil lantern in a class room because of the offensive odor, and who cannot avail themselves of an electrical apparatus, to learn that one of our teachers of physical science contrived for me an ingenious use of the Welsbach mantel which enables me, with the aid of a rubber hose, to use gas instead of oil for what was originally an oil lantern. The pictures upon the screen are twice as bright and clear, and there is no odor. Besides, I can get ready for an exhibition in five minutes and—I am talking now especially to the feminine members of the audience—I have no fear of an explosion.

This paper is rapidly reaching the prescribed limits and I realize that I have by no means covered the ground. What history teacher ever did cover the ground when discussing her own subject? However, I have at least referred to the illustrative material that I use in my own class room, and perhaps it is just as well, if we really want to

be helpful to each other in these conferences, to confine ourselves to our own practice and experience. In the exhibit shown at Teachers' College in this city during Christmas holidays there were many other things to be seen besides those I have mentioned; for instance, models of a Roman house, implements of war, clothing, household articles, etc.; others illustrating the culture history of Germany; others the progress made in industrial inventions, etc. They are all carefully enumerated in the article in the *History Teacher's Magazine* for February upon "The Visualization of History" to which I have several times referred. In Philadelphia, the place of such models is largely, and, in many respects, better taken for us by the Archæological Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, to which we teachers in the High School for Girls regularly take our classes. I suppose something of the same kind is true of all the large cities represented in this association, but schools that lack such advantages could readily and without great expense furnish themselves with a fairly well-equipped historical gallery by a judicious selection from these models.

A synchronistic chart of European history was another device shown at the exhibition of the American Historical Association. Those of us who have ever conscientiously endeavored in teaching general history to give our pupils some idea of contemporaneousness, ought to appreciate the value of such a chart. I remember well that as a mere child in a private school I gained my first idea of paralleling events and characters in history from an atlas upon the pages of which the different nations of Europe were represented by broad horizontal bands of different colors extending side by side. Events and characters of importance, with their dates, were printed in large type in these bands in such manner that those that were contemporary came directly under each other. Surely, this was an appeal to the eye that conveyed an important truth! Of course, the same thing to some extent may be accomplished with different colored chalk and a blackboard, but the advantages of the atlas or chart over the blackboard for such a purpose are so palpable that it is not necessary to mention them to this audience.

In closing, I cannot avoid repeating that it seems to me quite possible to carry to an extreme the use of such illustrative material

as we have been discussing. It is advantageous in a secondary school chiefly for the younger classes. As the mind develops the true teacher appeals more and more to intellectual and moral rather than to physical vision. She should gradually lead her pupils to cultivate historical sense, which seems to me to be a combination of judgment and imagination, and without which the student of history gains little that is worth having. Once acquired, however, its happy possessor is enriched beyond measure. For him the past lives again and the present is made tenfold more interesting and intelligible. The teacher of history who develops that sense, though it be but in one member of each class she teaches, succeeds, and great is her reward. She has helped a human being to expand the wings of his soul, to fly where he otherwise would have crept.

THE USE OF THE MAP AND OTHER ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL IN COLLEGE COURSES IN HISTORY

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The use to which maps and other illustrative material such as charts, pictures, and models, can be put in college courses in history, will be found upon examination to be determined almost wholly by three things, taken either singly or in combination: *First*—our conception of what college work should be; *Second*—the particular period of history constituting the course, or the character of the things calling for emphasis in the course; *Third*—the time at our disposal.

Of late years there has been a more or less general complaint against what seems to be a steady lowering of the standard of scholarship in college work; and various conditions, with, in every case, some show of justification, are assigned as a cause for the lowering. A few of these may with propriety be mentioned: the too general use of the elective system; the substitution of the hour system for the daily; the use of the lecture system in freshman and sophomore classes; the attention given to athletics and, in some institutions, to dramatics; religious diversions that amount almost to religious dissipations; over-organization of the student-body; the distractions incident upon dormitory life; and, *finally*, the introduction into the class-room of methods that approach the kindergarten.

The cause last assigned is by no means the most universal; but, inasmuch as it is the one and the only one that involves the subject-matter of this paper, present comment concerning it, to the exclusion of the others, cannot possibly be out of place. First, let us consider the necessity of introducing elementary instruction into the college, which is certainly no place for it, since the work of the college, as distinguished from the work of all grades of the pre-

paratory school, should be analytical and synthetical, should concern itself with the more abstruse elements of human knowledge, and should be eminently serious and practical. The introduction into the college of methods that may be termed kindergarten has been mainly attributable to the insufficiency of the secondary school education; *i.e.*, to the inadequate preparation which it gives for college, due sometimes to poor equipment and sometimes to poor methods, and to the physical and mental exhaustion which follows the use of radically wrong methods.

For some time past American educators generally have seized upon German ideas and German methods with such great enthusiasm that they have extended beyond all legitimate bounds the thing that is most characteristic of the university system in the country beyond the Rhine. They have taken methods, strictly and exclusively graduate, from the university into the college and then again from the college into the high school or into the academy. The best example of this, as far as history courses are concerned, is the *intensive* study of source material, which experience has shown is something entirely beyond the scope of the very young student. Another example, and perhaps one equally good, is the wholesale abandonment of the text-book and the substitution for it of collateral reading. At the time when the memory should be the faculty most exercised, it is the one most neglected, the reasoning and the critical faculties being by preference developed. The result is, that the pupils come to college lacking definite knowledge, knowing next to nothing about persons or places significant in the history of their country or of their race, showing evidences of brain fag, and requiring stimuli in the shape of illustrative material that will excite the imagination, and excite also an interest that ought already to be present or at least capable of being aroused through earnestness of purpose solely.

This is my point of departure, and this, I contend, is the place where a contrast should be drawn and drawn sharply between the use of illustrative material in the secondary school and its use in the college. Everything turns upon the object sought, the end to be gained. In the secondary school illustrative material may be used purely and simply to excite interest, to excite enthusiasm, or

to arouse a flagging attention, but in the college it should be used to illustrate, to emphasize a point of view, to expedite matters, or at best to convey a more intelligent understanding. There is absolutely no point and there is positive waste of time, to say nothing of a possible lowering of mental dignity, in passing around among the students in a college classroom trivial illustrative materials such as the pictures of the presidents or pictures of the homes of famous men.

In the taking up of the second determining factor, *i.e.*, the particular history course in which illustrative material may be used to excellent advantage, a clear distinction must of necessity be made between "maps" and some of the things that are comprehended in the term "other illustrative material," as given in the title of this paper. There is always a place for the map in the history course; for the inter-relation of geography and history can never be over-estimated. Indeed, it is difficult to conceive how a college history course, or any history course for that matter, that is not exclusively institutional or constitutional, can be properly conducted without the map. It must be used for subjects like the German migrations, the crusades, the age of discovery and exploration, and all boundary disputes; for they cannot be in the least comprehended without it.

My own students and even I myself had never fully realized the crudity and superstitious character of mediæval geographical ideas until Professor Stevenson, late of Rutgers College, now Secretary of the Hispanic Society, gave us an illustrated lecture on the cartography of the Middle Ages. Various maps and charts, illustrative of or emphasizing particular and peculiar facts and theories were projected upon the screen. Thus the Hereford and Elestorf maps, dating from about 1250, showed in certain small but interesting ways the influence of the religious thought of the age. What could be more significant of that thought than the placing of Jerusalem at the center of the world, or than putting Christ at the top with hands outstretched, his body representing the earth itself, and the marvellous races being placed around the edge. The letters of the words Mors (Death) decorating the four sides, were also symbolic of that same religious and darkly superstitious time.

Mediæval charts are most instructive. Take, for instance, the Peutinger Table of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which is evidently a reproduction or copy of an old Roman road chart. It locates Pagan temples and three prominent cities most conspicuously, Rome, Constantinople, Antioch; but shows a curious absence of Christian influence. Take also the itineraries of crusading days, the guide books of the pilgrims, or the immense collection of Portolanos. The Portolanos were originally drawn for the Mediterranean coast regions, of which they furnished written descriptions with sailing directions marked by lines. They show within themselves a steady development. As years passed they became more and more elaborated until about 1502, when the Canario map appeared, a world chart of the same variety, scarcely any names being given for the interior, but all knowledge being concentrated along the coast.

The mediæval map with its legends or reputed history of the things depicted was a sort of chronicle and can therefore be used, not only as illustrative material, but as an historical source. A close study of it will convince us that geographical ideas quite frequently, if not generally, anticipated discovery. The map maker, working upon an old tradition or upon his own idea of what ought to be, placed a strait here and an island there. Then the venturesome explorer went out to seek for the same, and quite often found it. A good example of this sort of thing is furnished by the Catalan Map, which was produced in 1375, shortly after Marco Polo's fascinating account of his travels in the Far East had impressed the Italian world. All such things prove conclusively that Columbus was prepared for. He may not have known of all that had been done, but discovery was in the air. Columbus was the product of his age in a very significant way. So were all who preceded and all who followed him.

The theory of the earth's rotundity is another idea that can be beautifully presented by mediæval cartography. All through the Middle Ages we have references to globes which, of course, presupposed rotundity. There is, for instance, the mention of a globe in the time of Charles the Great, of another, in the time of Frederick II., and this latter was evidently the work of a Mohammedan.

Care should be taken, however, to distinguish between the import of the globe and that of the circular map. The circular map conveyed the idea that the earth was not globular, but of the shape of a flat wheel.

Sometimes it is even advisable to have students make maps themselves for the sake of elucidation or of emphasis. They can do this most profitably with respect to the territorial apportionment of the Treaty of Verdun, the peculiarly detached character of the Lombard settlement in Italy, the rise of the Stem Duchies, or the location of the English possessions in France. In my own student days, the feature that made a certain American history course of the highest practical value to me and to my classmates, was the filling in of the details, according to given directions, of Professor Hodder's atlas illustrating territorial growth and organization. In much the same way too, we made campaign maps, or rather maps illustrative of the vote, popular and electoral, in a given presidential year. A similar plan can be followed with respect to pioneer movements and to lines of travel in new countries. Attention will thus be called in a very concrete way, to small points, historically interesting or important, that mere reading would cause to be entirely ignored.

Composite maps and progressive maps are also of great value as a part of the classroom equipment. A good example of the former is given in the case of Burgundy. Students are always confused by the appearance and reappearance of Burgundy under different administrative names, and with different boundaries. She figures historically as county, duchy, kingdom, circle and land-gravate. A map variously colored to illustrate these facts and to mark distinct or over-lapping boundaries will remove all elements of confusion. A series of progressive maps can be used with profit to illustrate the rise of Prussia. By such means the student will understand to how great an extent the partition of Poland was inevitable. The manifest destiny of Prussia lay in the direction of a racially homogeneous state. This same series of maps will also explain the position of overwhelming importance which Prussia occupies to-day in the German Empire.

As regards the use in colleges of illustrative material other

than maps, I am going to speak in a somewhat personal way of my own work, which comprises courses in English, Mediæval, and American history. In English history, I have found several things in the nature of synchronistic charts and genealogical tables especially helpful. They serve as a sort of synopsis. Some years ago I obtained from a tutor at Oxford University a scheme showing the development, down to the minutest detail, of the various departments of the British government, out of the old Curia Regis. This scheme, with modifications, has served time and again to elucidate a most difficult subject and one that without it, or without something like it, would be almost incomprehensible to the average undergraduate. Such things as intensive agriculture can be very beautifully illustrated by some such chart as Professor Cunningham is said to have used in his classes at Cambridge, the crops subject to rotation being indicated in regular order. Even a picture like that which appears in Professor Andrews' text-book of English history, showing the permanent traces on hillside land of the strip system, is very graphic when brought to the attention of an interested class. All these things convey information. They supplement the lecture or they clarify the recitation. They do not simply serve the purpose of exciting interest, and therefore they are legitimately used in the college classroom.

The same can be said of much that can be offered to the student of mediæval history. The grave question in both cases is one of time. Pictures of scenes, places, edifices are everywhere available and, since they are so common, it is doubtful whether the recitation hour cannot be more profitably spent than in considering them individually. The attention of the student should, however, be directed toward such things. He may even be shown, but it seems hardly necessary, pictures of the Gothic cathedral, the feudal castle, in order to have the idea brought graphically home to him that mediæval architecture was essentially the expression of mediæval spirit. Professor Emerton's plan of a mediæval castle is very instructive, especially when taken in connection with a picture such as is given in "The Growth of the French Nation," where by the aid of perspective every detail of the completed edifice is forthcoming.

In American history courses, I have never used any pictorial

illustration whatsoever. I have never had the time for so doing and have never felt the necessity. I have, however, found charts and tabulations instructive in the highest degree. Take, for instance, the chart illustrating the development of political parties or one of the waves of immigration, both in colonial and national times. I can also conceive that a chart might be made and most profitably used to indicate the spheres of State and federal authority respectively. That is a subject that students find much difficulty with, and any scheme of visualization that would assist them in comprehending it, most teachers would gladly welcome.

In a course in Ancient History, at least in one like that scheduled in the curriculum of the Woman's College of Baltimore, in which stress is laid upon development in civilization and comparison of types, there is considerable room for the use of illustrative material; but to discuss its use there, even incidentally, I am compelled to draw upon the experience of my colleague, Dr. Eleanor L. Lord. In two instances that she has spoken of, the use seemed to me very significant and very appropriate. Those instances were the evolution of Egyptian decorative design and the evolution of the Greek alphabet. As a matter of fact, it is doubtful whether any amount of discussion could quite equal a few concrete illustrations in rendering these subjects, half-technical as they are, quickly comprehensible and more than interesting. From even a cursory glance at a set of illustrations covering the first case, the student realizes how structural necessity and a limited range of suggestions compelled the Egyptians to combine, for decorative purposes, their religious symbolism and geometrical knowledge.

The evolution of the Greek alphabet with variations from hieroglyphic forms through the Syllabarium is an even more interesting subject when graphically portrayed. The student sees that what was originally a picture became a symbol and was then reduced to significant forms, to forms that were conditioned, either by the use that was to be made of them (the Phœnicians being a trading nation used them on coins), or by the materials at the disposal of the maker—a sharp instrument on stone, a stylus on soft clay, a reed pen on papyrus.

It is a course in Renaissance history, to my way of thinking,

that the most exhaustive use of all kinds of illustrative material can best be made. Renaissance history in undergraduate work, unless, perchance, complex political details be brought into prominence, is bound to be frankly a cultural course. Only by concrete illustration can the students be made to understand, that artistic development accompanied and paralleled political and intellectual; that the whole Humanist movement, the protest against ascetic mediævalism, and the struggle of the individual soul to work out things for itself untrammelled by the church, had a close and intimate relation to Renaissance art. Study of the classics suggested mythological subjects to replace the monastic, and, as a consequence, Christian art became paganized. As the individual came to count for more in the general scheme of things, portraiture developed, artisans and craftsmen, qualified by technical skill became the artists that replaced the monks, the patron appeared, and secular decoration to glorify him; all this must be illustrated graphically.

Now we come to the third determining factor—the question of time, which each individual instructor must answer for himself, and in his own way—remembering only that illustrative material has its legitimate place in the college class-room in so far as it supplements, elucidates, expedites, connects detached facts, helps the student to use material in new relations, to generalize, or to make deductions; but whenever it descends to the level of an entertainment, it is illegitimate.

DISCUSSION

M. FRANCES FREELAND, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.:

The triple "salute" that has just been fired has certainly been "adequate" and as the ground has been so fully covered, it remains for me to fire a few single shots, hoping to hit the mark and trusting to do no damage, except in the ranks of the enemy. The general trend of thought in to-day's discussion has been toward the vitalizing of history through the use of the concrete, as represented by maps, charts, pictures, and other illustrative material. To the end of rendering more effective our use of such material, I shall point out a few weak spots in our present system. Perhaps by strengthening such places, we can make history a more real and living thing to the child in the elementary school, and thus enable him, later, as a pupil in the secondary school and at college, to more truly perceive the significance of great world movements.

Because of a certain vagueness of impression that always attaches itself to book work in history, I would suggest that the point of departure in elementary work be made from *things*, from concrete conditions that are to be perceived readily from the forms presented on the sand-table, the relief maps, contour maps and models; in most cases beginning with the geographical, or physical side of history. Inasmuch as "History is the resultant of the two great forces, man and nature, reacting upon each other," the presentation of the *scene* makes the entrance, the words and the deeds of the actors more truly real, and surely more significant. A study of the physical features of the Grecian peninsula makes more easily possible an intelligent study of the ideals and achievements of the Greeks; the Nile Valley is the clue to the life of the Egyptians; Hannibal's great feat would be meaningless without a picture of the difficulties presented by the great Alps; the expansion of our own country cannot be comprehended in the faintest degree without a knowledge of the surface features of that wide domain.

In short, there can be no real, vital comprehension of historical facts without clear, definite and true mental pictures of the scenes of the world's great dramas. I therefore suggest: *First*—In the elementary school, a more careful, thorough and intelligent training in things *geographical*, for the sake of history; and, *Second*—In the last grammar grade and during at least a part of the high school,

more attention to the study of geographical relations, especially in connection with history. It seems deplorable that the mass of our students drop geography just when its application to history becomes apparent to them. To return to the first point—that of more thorough training in geography in the elementary school because of its value to history: there should be a more thorough understanding of the great physical forces, viz., the tides, winds and currents; the effect of great mountain barriers; the value of waterways; the importance of coastline. These physical features need to be studied in their relation to historic possibilities. There should be, also, a more practical knowledge of map language, so that a new region may be entered by pupils through the use of the map key; few of our pupils can use intelligently the key of any map; the contour map is a sealed book for many of our students, even those of the secondary school.

That this skill may be acquired by our pupils, we, as teachers, need to take a more enlightened view of the office of the map. The map of a region should be the point *from* which we pass to conditions of life therein, rather than the place to which we come for *illustrations* of that life. The map should be, as far as a map can be, the actual stage upon which the actors appear and “make history.” What the people of Scotland, of Cuba, of Switzerland or New England will do depends to a considerable extent upon their physical environment. The Spartan country was largely responsible for Thermopylæ. In the same connection, are not the problems of South Africa and South America to-day to be traced to the physical conditions of those continents? How important, therefore, that the pupils learn to fully understand these determining conditions.

In my next suggestion, I wish to plead for a closer touch with real life through the illustrative material used, through the postals, pictures, photographs and models. Often a letter from a friend in Athens, or a postal with a Cairo postmark will form the living touch—the stamp itself may signify much that is vital to a child who seems so far removed from past ages and distant scenes.

Along the same line, current happenings may be used as an interesting point of departure; for instance, the stress in England’s Parliament, the Philippine Islands or the Isthmian Canal may well lead the pupils to the study of constitutional government, on one hand, and the problems of the Orient, on the other. Local history may lead to more extended study of the State and country; a great anniversary, such as the Hudson-Fulton Celebration, may kindle a lasting fire of interest in one’s country and its past.

My last suggestion is one of additional illustrative material for use in history. I refer to the Government documents, especially

the Consular Reports of Trade, sent out by the Department of Commerce and Labor, the pamphlets on Conservation and Irrigation and the publications of the Weather Bureau; all of this material may be obtained from the Government Offices at Washington. Another valuable aid to the work in history is the National Geographic Magazine, with its special numbers on Africa, Alaska, the Philippines and the Orient, its authentic maps and statistics and its excellent pictures. The Cyclopædic Review of Current History is also an excellent source of information.

By an intelligent use of the wealth of illustrative material for vitalizing the subject of history, the pupils of the elementary school should be enabled to see the most vivid of mental pictures of things within their ken, thus laying the foundation for the general conclusions and historic judgments of the secondary school and college—conclusions based upon exact and accurate data made vital through the use of the best illustrative material presented in ways adapted to the progressive development of the child.

TREASURER'S REPORT

1909-1910

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March 13, 1909.....	\$255.23	
Dues paid during year.....	198.00	
Received from sale of Reports.....	2.75	
		\$455.98

DISBURSEMENTS

Expenses of visiting speakers.....	\$ 40.00	
Expenses of local committee.....	6.00	
Printing and stationery.....	29.85	
Postage	38.49	
Clerical help.....	4.50	
Express	2.35	
Exchange	.50	
		\$121.69
Balance on hand.....		\$334.29

Audited and found correct, March 12, 1910.

(Signed) CLARA BYRNES
E. E. GILTNER

Auditing Committee.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose.

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership.

Any one interested in the study of teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers.

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, and a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), who, with the retiring president and four others, shall constitute a council in which shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association, including the appointment of any necessary committees. The members of the Council, with the exception of the retiring president, who is *ex officio* a member, shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

Article IV. Meetings.

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held on the second Friday and Saturday in March, at the place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues.

The membership fee shall be \$1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments.

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given in the call for the meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
Abel, Annie Heloise,	Goucher College,	Baltimore, Md.
Ale, Ida,	332 West State St.,	Trenton, N. J.
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Andrews Elizabeth, A.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
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Baldwin, Blanche,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Baldwin, James F.,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Baldwin, Jessie,	34 Southard St.,	Trenton, N. J.
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Beard, Charles A.,	Columbia University,	New York City.
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Belcher, Katharine F.,	Newark High School,	Newark, N. J.
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Blydenburgh, Josephine		
E.,	Public School No. 102,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Bridgman, Anne T.,	157 West 123d St.,	New York City.
Briggs, Elizabeth,	Dr. Sach's School for Girls,	New York City.
Brown, Marshall S.,	New York University,	New York City.
Brush, W. Franklin,	16 East 37th St.,	New York City.
Bryan, Alfred C.,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bryant, Myrton A.,	16th and Chestnut Sts.,	Philadelphia, Pa.

Buchanan, Mary,	439 Bellevue Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
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Burch, Henry R.,	Manual Training High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Butler, Eliza R.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Byrnes, Clara,	Normal College,	New York City.
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Campbell, James O.,	Westminster College,	New Wilmington, Pa.
Carhart, Elizabeth M.,	Brooklyn Heights Seminary,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Carpenter, Leonora E.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carroll, Elizabeth M.,	Arundell School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carter, Mary C.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Carter, Sally R.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Cass, E. Stella,	8 Oak Ave.,	Moorestown, N. J.
Castle, Edward H.,		Brookfield Center, Ct.
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